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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses six different models of organizational structure and leadership, including the scalar chain or pyramid model, the continuum model, the grid model, the linking pin model, the contingency model, and the circle or democratic model. Each model is examined in a separate section that describes the model and its development, lists some proponents of the model, suggests when the model may be most effectively used, and discusses the model's relative strengths and weaknesses. (JG)

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LEADERSHIP MODELS

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LEADERSHIP MODELS

Leadership Types

Types of leadership are called by many different names. One writer proposed twenty-one types of educational leadership: autocrat, cooperator, elder statesman, eager beaver, pontifical, muddled, loyal staff man, prophet, scientist, mystic, dogmatist, open-minded, philosopher, business expert, benevolent despot, child protector, laissez-faire, community-minded, cynic, optomistic, and democrat.[1] Plato propcsed three types of leadership: philosopher-statesman, military commander, and businessman.[2] Weber proposed three types of leaders: bureaucratic, patrimonial, and charismatic.[3] Getzels and Guba proposed the nomothetic, idiographic, and transactional.[4] Cattell and Stice identified persistent momentary problem solvers, salient, sociometric, and elected.[5] Blake and Mouton identified country club manage-

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[1] L. W. Harding, "Twenty-one Varieties of Educational Leadership." Educational Leadership 6 (February 1949): 299-302.

[2] Plato, The Republic, translated by G. M. A. Grube, (Indianapolis: Hackett Publishing Co.), Books 5 and 8.

[3] Max Weber, The Theory of Social and Economic Organization, translated by A. M. Henderson and Talcott Parsons, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1947), p. 329.

[4] J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process." School Review 65 (Winter 1957): 423-441.

[5] R. B. Cattell and G. F. Stice, "Four Formulae for Selecting Leaders on the Basis of Personality." Human Relations 7 (1954): 493-507

ment, middle of the road, impoverished management, team management, and task management as leadership types.[1] Bogardus identified mental, social, prestige, and democratic.[2] Sixteen authors, publishing between 1915 and 1951, recognized most frequently the following types of leadership: authoritative (dominator), persuasive (crowd arouser), democratic (group developer), intellectual (eminent man), executive (administrator), and representative (spokesman).[3] Lewin, Lippitt and White, in their classic studies, identified laisses-faire, autocratic, and democratic.[4] In much of the current literature these latter three are the designations used to describe the styles of leadership being exercised.

The study of leadership and what makes good leaders has apparently not produced a definitive description of just what does do so. Studies have focused on the trait approach, the situational approach, the behavioral approach, the styles-of-leadership approach, and the functional leadership approach.[5]

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[1]Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid, (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Company, 1964)

[2]Emory S. Bogardus, Fundamentals of Social Psychology, (New York: The Century Company, 1924). pp. 409-445.

[3]Ralph M. Stogdill, Handbook of Leadership; a Survey of Theory and Research, (New York: The Free Press, 1974). p. 27.

[4]Ralph K. White and Ronald Lippitt, Autocracy and Democracy; an Experimental Inquiry, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960). p. 61.

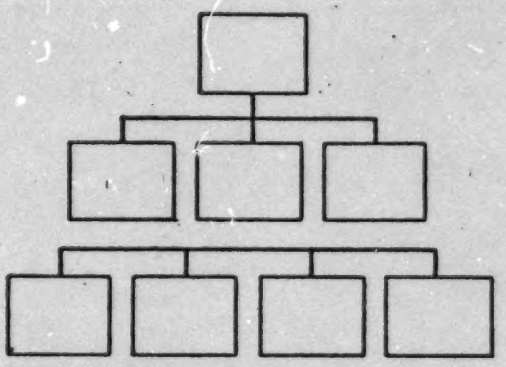
[5]Gordon L. Lippitt, "What Do We Know About Leadership?" in The Planning of Change, ed. by Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne, and Robert Chin, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962). pp. 431-434.

Model Types

Some of the models of organization within which leadership of various types operate are presented below. That a particular organization's chart of organization is displayed in a particular manner does not necessarily indicate that that is the leadership style in the organization. Organization charts are the formal structure. The real leadership may be in the informal structure. The models indicated below are more stereotypes than living structures.

Scalar Chain or Pyramid

Figure 1



Pyramid with Positions

The scalar chain or pyramid indicates that authority should flow from top to bottom and responsibility from bottom to top. The stereotype of the leader in this model is the authoritarian or autocratic leader.

Proponents: One of the early examples of an organization with a pyramidal leadership is in the Bible where Moses organized the people

with leaders over thousands, hundreds, fifties, and tens.[1] In the management literature one of the early advocates of the scalar chain was Henri Fayol. Fayol defined the scalar chain as:

> ... the chain of superiors ranging from the ultimate authority to the lowest ranks. The line of authority is the route followed--via every link in the chain--by all communications which start from or go to the ultimate authority. This path is dictated both by the need for some transmission and by the principle of unity of command.[2]

The usage of the pyramidal form of organization for leadership is implicit in Frederick Taylor's writings. His contention that the foreman should tell the worker exactly how to do, when to do, and how much to do on a job is authoritarian in the ultimate. A defraction of the concept's illustration in a model is possible when discussing his "functional foremanship" principle, which is in effect that a foreman should be put in charge of a job and men might move from job to job and while working on a job they should be under the supervision and direction of the foreman of that job but when on a different job they should be under the supervision and direction of the different foreman on whose job they are working.[3]

The exercise of authority as implied in the pyramidal form was advocated by Mooney, Reiley, Urwick, and most other writers before 1940. In this concept authority is defined as the legitimate right to direct or influence the performance of others. It involves both

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[1] Exodus 18:17-27

[2] Henri Fayol, General and Industrial Management, trans. Constance Storrs, (London: Pitman, 1949). p. 34.

[3] Frederick W. Taylor, The Principles of Scientific Management, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1911).

the right and the power to exact performance from other persons.[1]

When to Use: As previously stated, the pyramidal organization for leadership is stereotyped authoritarian in style. The authoritarian style is used only when all other forms have not or cannot succeed. It is used when people are dependent. Some people need and are highly dependent upon the authoritative guidance of leaders. The authoritarian style is used when decisions are already made. When policies and procedures for a specific action have already been determined and formulated it is assumed that the actions to be accomplished are binding on an organization and the members. The mission then is to communicate and enforce the policies and procedures, therefore the authoritative style is appropriate.

The authoritative style is used when satisfactory work specifications and routines exist. When quality control standards that assure products that meet specifications are operating the authoritarian style of leadership can be utilized to maintain the standards. In this instance the organizations guidelines become the authoritative source for management.

The authoritative style is used when positional or expert leverage is primary. This is eximplified in organizations where technical or highly skilled persons or groups operate.

The authoritarian style is used in emergencies. When quick and decisive action must be taken a leader must exert authority and initiate appropriate action to respond to the emergency situation.

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[1] Dale S. Beach, Personnel: The Management of People at Work 3rd. edition, (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1975). p. 518.

A responsible manager may face from time to time a situation when he must make decisions and does so and enforces the decision by his legitimate authority of position. These decisions may be painful and unpopular, but because of the responsibility of the position they occasionally must be made. For the manager to fail to make these necessary decisions and act on them would be to abdicate his responsibility.

A final occasion when authority must be exercised is in breaking ties in a deadlocked situation. When the result of exercise of the democratic process ends in a tie that stalemates a situation someone must exercise authority to break the tie and move the activity to some conclusion. This act of breaking the tie is in effect authoritarian.[1]

Strengths and Weaknesses: The effectiveness of the authoritarian style is dependent in part upon the type of followers a leader is leading.and the size of the work group. Medalia found in his studies that men scoring high on the F Scale (an indication that they were themselves highly authoritarian) accepted authoritarian leaders.[2] Vroom and Mann found that workers exhibited more positive attitudes toward authoritarian leaders in large groups where workers interacted less frequently with each other and with the leader.[3] There is a common concept that the authoritarian style of leadership accomplishes more and with more accuracy than the democratic, and examples of Hitler in Germany, Napoleon

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[1]George T. Vardaman, Dynamics of Managerial Leadership, (Philadelphia: Auerbach Publishers, Inc., 1973). pp. 36-40.

[2]N. Z. Medalia, "Authoritarianism, Leader Acceptance, and Group Cohesion," Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology 51 (Sept. 1955): 207-213.

[3]V. H. Vroom and C. F. Mann, "Leader Authoritarianism and Employee Attitudes," Personnel Psychology 13 (Summer 1960): 125-140.

in France, and Mao Tse-Tung in China are cited to authenticate the examples.[1] The Hawthorne studies, which are discussed below, indicated that workers under a democratic arrangement were more productive.[2] The Coch and French studies in the pajamas factory tended to support this same conclusion.[3]

The Continuum

Experiments, beginning in 1927, at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company in Cicero, Illinois, caused a change to some extent in the concept of relations between workers and leaders. These studies, which became known as the "Hawthorne Studies," were conducted by Elton Mayo, F. J. Roethlisberger, and William J. Dickson. The implications of the outcome of the studies were that the organization should be built around the workers and that more consideration should be given to the feelings and attitudes of the workers.[4] Additional studies by Coch and French in a pajamas factory and several other studies[5] led to an increased concern for, and extension of participation by workers in, the managerial functions of the organization. This

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[1]Ralph K. White and Ronald Lippitt, Autocracy and Democracy: An Experimental Inquiry. (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960). p. 275.

[2]Elton Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization. (Boston: Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1945). pp. 68-86.

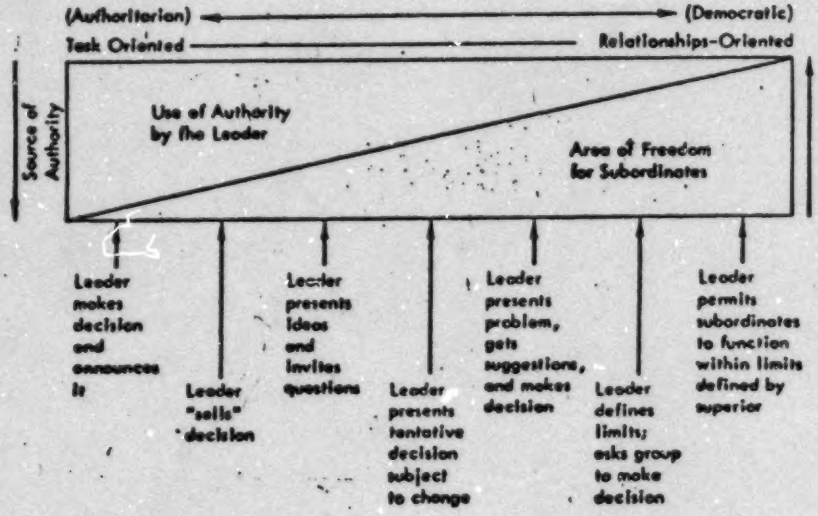
[3]L. Coch and J. R. P. French, "Overcoming Resistance to Change," Human Relations 1 (1948): 512-532.

[4]Elton Mayo, pp. 68-86.

[5]Several studies are cited in Ralph M. Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research. (New York: The Free Press, 1974). pp. 106-111.

participation is on a variety of levels. Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt depicted this range on a continuum moving from complete leader domination to complete group domination or laissez-faire leadership.[1]

Figure 2 The Continuum


(Authoritarian)
(Democratic)
Task Oriented
Relationships-Oriented
Source of Authority
Use of Authority by the Leader
Area of Freedom for Subordinates
Leader makes decision and announces it
Leader "sells" decision
Leader presents ideas and invites questions
Leader presents tentative decision subject to change
Leader presents problem, gets suggestions, and makes decision
Leader defines limits; asks group to make decision
Leader permits subordinates to function within limits defined by superior

Proponents: Proponents of this model use it to illustrate the degree of authority exercised by the leader and the degree of participation left available for subordinates to participate in work design, time of work, and other actions consistent with the overall purpose and mission of the organization.

When to use: The continnum is a graph that explains levels that exist and varieties of styles exercised by leaders. It is not a model of advocacy.

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[1]Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," Harvard Business Review 37 (March-April 1957): 95-101.

Strengths and Weaknesses: This model can be used to illustrate a relationship w th variations between domination and laissez-faire. The weakness is that it shows this relationship on one plain only. It does not have the capacity to depict the leader who is task oriented but also exhibits concern for the workers.

The Grids

Some attempts have been made to construct models that depict both concern for the task and for the workers. In the early studies by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan there was an attempt to approach the study of leadership by locating clusters of characteristics that seemed to be related to each other and to tests of effectiveness. The studies identified two concepts that came to be called employee orientation and production orientation.[1] Several studies at the Research Center for Group Dynamics indicated leader and group objectives fall into two categories (1) the achievement of some specific group goal, or (2) the maintenance or strengthening of the group itself.[2] Leadership studies at the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University narrowed the description of leader behavior to two dimensions: Initiating Structures and Consideration. Initiating structure was defined as the leader's behavior in

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[1] D. Katz, N. Maccoby and Nancy C. Morse, Productivity, Supervision, and Morale in an Office Situation. (Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, 1950) as quoted in Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1972). p. 72.

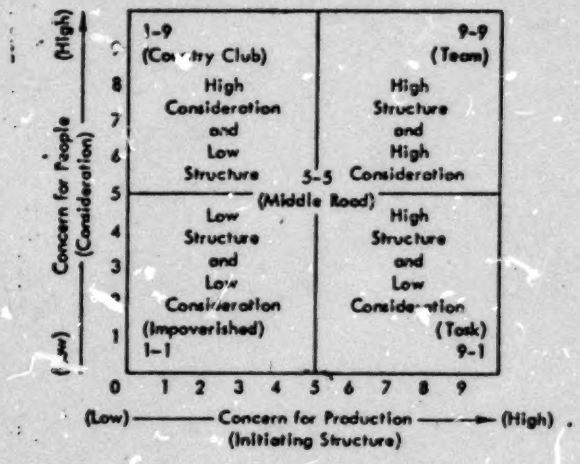
[2] Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, eds. Group Dynamics: Research and Theory, 2nd. ed. (Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1960).

delineating the relationship between himself and the members of the work group in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods. Consideration was defined as behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.[1]

In connection with the Ohio State studies a grid was constructed on which leader behavior was plotted on both axes rather than on a continuum. On the Ohio State grid the vertical axis was labeled "Consideration" and the horizontal axis was labeled "Initiating Structure" to indicate the concepts defined above.[2]

Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton refined and popularized the two axis plotting concept in their managerial grid. On the Blake

Figure 3 The Grid



[1]Andrew W. Halpin, The Leadership of School Superintendents. (Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University, 1956), p. 4.

[2]Hersey and Blanchard, pp. 73-74.

and Mouton Managerial Grid the vertical axis is labelled "Concern for People" and the horizontal axis is labeled "Concern for Production." On the Managerial Grid, five different types of leadership based on concern for production and concern for people are located in the four quadrants and at their intersection. The five leadership styles are: Impoverished, Country Club, Task, Middle-of-the-road, and Team. The Impoverished leadership has little concern for production and little concern for people. Country Club leadership gives great concern for people with little to moderate concern for production. Task leadership gives great concern to production but little to the human element. Middle-of-the-road leadership balances concern for production with concern for maintaining morale of the people. Team leadership is achieved through committed people having a common stake in organization purposes.[1]

Proponents: As indicated above, Robert Blake and Jane S. Mouton refined and popularized the two-axis grid. The preface to their book indicates that people associated with Humble Oil and Refining Company and people associated with Scientific Methods, Inc. participated with them in the development of the grid.[2]

When to Use: The 1,1 or Impoverished management is the laissez-faire style of management. This is when there is exerted only the minimum effort required to get the minimal required work done to sustain organization membership.

The 1,9 or Country Club managerial style is one in which thought-

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[1]Hersey and Blanchard, pp. 75-76.

[2]Blake and Mouton, p. xi.

ful attention to the needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo. This seems to be an appropriate style for the business that is being operated as a tax writeoff.

The 9,1 or Task managerial style is one where the conditions of work are so arranged that the human elements interfere to a minimum degree. The authoritarian style of management is almost the same as the Task managerial style and the same times that are appropriate for usage of the authoritarian style are appropriate for the Task situation.[1]

The 5,5 or Middle-of-the-Road managerial style is one where it is possible to balance getting the work out with maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level. Management is by persuasion. The manager explains how observance of standard practice is for the good of all.[2]

The 9,9 or Team managerial style is one in which there is a relationship of trust and respect between the manager and the workers. Work is accomplished by committed people who have a common stake in accomplishment and organization purpose. As the name implies, the 9,9 style is appropriate for an athletic team.[3]

Strengths and Weaknesses: The managerial grid permitted one to graph concern for people and concern for tasks in the 81 different positions

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[1]Ibid. pp. 22-37.

[2]Ibid. p. 115.

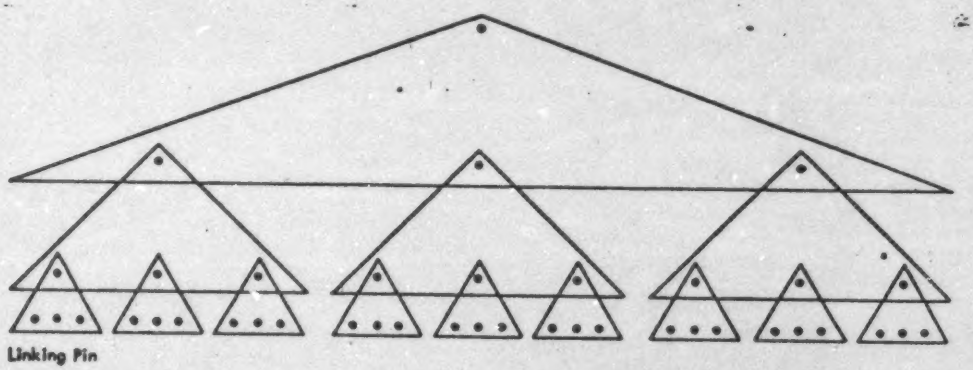
[3]Ibid. p. 145.

the two-axis nine-positions-per-side grids indicate. The weakness of the grid was that it measured only two dimensions. Proposed extensions to make the grid three, four, or more dimensioned to permit graphing teamwork, effectiveness, etc. were being developed at the time of the writing of this paper.[1] These proposals were not yet developed to the degree of clarity that would make their usage widespread.

Linking Pin

A leadership model that makes the leader the linking pin between his work group and the next group higher in the organization has been proposed. The plan would have organizations form work groups with overlapping group membership. The leader in each work group is also

Figure 4 The Linking Pin



a member of the next higher work group and functions in both groups.

Proponents: The linking-pin model of organizational leadership was proposed by Rensis Likert.[2] Likert advocated holding occasional meetings over two hierarchical levels so that coordination of purpose can

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[1] Hersey and Blanchard, pp. 83-87.

[2] Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961), pp. 109-115.

be discussed and understood by all members of groups on both levels[1]

When to Use: The work groups connected by linking pin key members who are also members of other groups may be an appropriate organization for leadership of people with a high level of education who tend to be capable of mature and independent behavior.[2]

Strengths and Weaknesses: The strength of the linking pin organization for leadership is that it is a loosely controlled flexible organization that utilizes the full potential of capable group members.[3] The weakness may be that this organization pattern may not be appropriate for people who need authoritarian supervision in order to work effectively.

Contingency Model

The group associated with Fred Fiedler at the University of Illinois has devoted considerable study to whether task-oriented leadership or employee related leadership is more effective. Their conclusions are that task-oriented leadership may be more effective under some conditions and employee-oriented leadership may be more effective under other conditions. Their leadership theory postulates that leadership style is determined by the needs the individual seeks to satisfy in the leadership situation. Individuals with different styles respond to different conditions in different ways. Perform-

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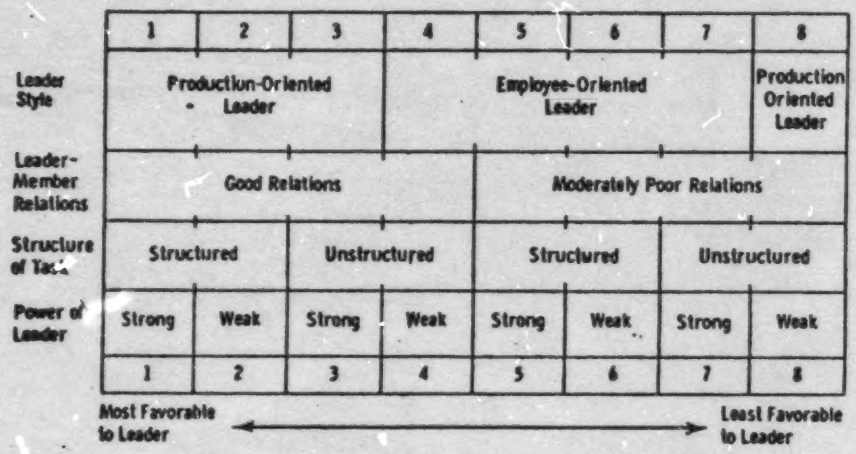
[1]Ibid. p. 115.

[2]Ibid. p. 114.

[3]Hersey and Blanchard, p. 147.

ance of interacting groups and organizations is contingent upon the favorableness of the leadership situation as well as upon the

Figure 5 Contingency Model Chart[1]



individual leader's style. Leadership performance depends as much on the organization as upon the attributes of the leader. Leaders are not effective or ineffective, they are effective in one situation and ineffective in other situations.[2]

Proponents: Fred E. Fiedler and others at the Group Effectiveness Research Laboratory at the University of Illinois supplied the information on which the model was based.[3] Dale S. Beach translated the information from one of Fiedler's tables to the model. Since

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[1]The chart is based upon data in Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1967) chapter 9 as interpreted and illustrated in Dale S. Beach, Personnel, p. 527.

[2]Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 261.

[3]Ibid. p. 142.

Fiedler's group did not seem to have any definite conclusions that led them to advocate any style of leadership for specific situations, the writers of this paper are not sure that anyone really advocates the usage of the model except in an explanatory way.

When to Use: The contingency model depicts eight different combinations of leader style, member relations, and task structures that lead to strong or weak power for the leader. Reading the chart from bottom to top indicates what may be the best type of leadership to exercise. As an example: reading number 3, a leader with strong power by reason of position or other factors, working in an unstructured situation and enjoying good relations with members could employ a production oriented leadership style.

Strengths and Weaknesses: This model can be used, perhaps better than any other, to indicate to personnel directors and others who must build organizations, the kind of leadership style they should look for in individuals they employ for different positions in their organizations.[1]

The Circle

Robert Townsend did not think very highly of organizational charts with people's names in little boxes arranged in hierarchical order. He said that in the best organizations people like to think of themselves as working in a circle like around a table. One of the

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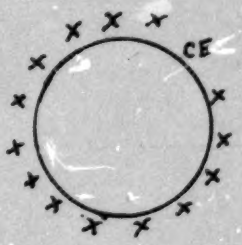
[1]Beach, pp. 527-528.

positions at the table is designated the chief executive officer because someone has to make the tactical decisions, but leadership passes from one to the other as the situation changes and as tasks are done.[1]

Figure 6 The Circle



Proponents: The writer of this paper could not find proponents other than Townsend who described the organizational model as the circle. The concept is essentially the same as the democratic system of leadership. Seifert and Clinebell described this system as one in which the leader functions as a participant alongside the other members of the group. He reaches out to people rather than down to them. Decision-making resides in the group with each member having an equal opportunity to participate.[2]

When to Use: The circular model or democratic system is used when the group size is small enough to have each member participate in discussion and when members have developed in their ability and self concept to an

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[1] Robert Townsend. Up the Organization: How to Stop the Corporation from Stifling People and Strangling Profits. (Greenwich, Conn.: Fawcett Publications, Inc., 1970), pp. 116-117.

[2] Harvey Seifert and Howard J. Clinebell, Jr. Personal Growth and Social Change; a Guide for Ministers and Laymen as Change Agents. (Philadelphia: The Westminister Press, 1969), p. 143.

extent that will make them comfortable in their role.

Strengths and Weaknesses: The strength of this system of organization is that it develops leaders. Townsend indicated it worked to this effect in his company. When he became head of Avis he was assured that no one at headquarters was any good. Three years later it was recognized that there was an abundance of management ability in the company. The people were the same people who had been there when he arrived. They had just been developed.[1]

The weakness of the system may be that when the democratic form of leadership is initially installed in an organization it may produce results slowly. It takes time to train others to act efficiently.[2] Democracy in organizations involves a chance for everyone to develop and contribute according to his ability--aiming for the greatest good for the greatest number.

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[1] Townsend, p. 123.

[2] Emory S. Bogardus. Fundamentals of Social Psychology. (New York: The Century Company, 1924). p. 443.

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